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## NOTES AND ABSTRACTS

**The Field for the American Society of Municipal Improvement.**—It is true, as the president states in his paper on the American Society of Municipal Improvement, that this society has a right to exist because it is doing a work for municipal engineering which no other society attempts to do; but it has a greater right in that it is doing equally good work for other technical departments of the city government, which is not done by any other society. There are many members of the society who would not wish to see its field restricted to that of municipal engineering, and the best interests of all the members, as well as of society at large, demand that the field of the society be as broad as its name, and that it cover all kinds of municipal improvements.

There has been in the past a very salutary effort to restrict the number of questions to be discussed at convention to those practical problems actually covered by the title, leaving theoretical and political questions to other associations; and this restriction has greatly aided in strengthening and enlarging the society. It seems, however, that this selection has proceeded far enough, and that the society should in the future, as it has in the past, serve all the various departments represented in its membership, and offer inducements in the way of fact and discussion for workers in all these departments in the cities of the continent to become members.—Editorial in *Municipal Engineering*, October, 1905. H. W.

**American Society of Municipal Improvements.**—Eleven years ago the American Society of Municipal Improvements was organized in Buffalo with sixty members. Its good work has continued, and the society has maintained a high reputation for earnest endeavor, which it is to be hoped it will continue to deserve.

If there is a certain area in the field of municipal advancement which is peculiarly our own—and I firmly believe there is—then our best work will result from a study of its nature and confining our energies within its boundaries.

As stated by our constitution, the object of this society is “to disseminate information and experience upon, and to promote the best methods to be employed in, the management of municipal departments and in the construction of municipal works.” The National Municipal League is largely composed of citizens as such only, who consider “political, administrative, and educational phases of the municipal problem.” In the League of American Municipalities are gathered the mayors and other officials of our cities to study “all questions pertaining to municipal administration.” The purpose of the American Civic Association is “the cultivation of higher ideals of civic life and beauty in America.”

The first two consider chiefly municipal administration as a whole and the methods of co-ordinating various municipal departments, but in only a minor degree the details of the management of individual departments; while this last would seem to be explicitly stated as one of the objects of this society, and one worthy of our earnest consideration.

At first thought, it might seem that the field of engineering was already more than covered by existing societies. An examination of the work done by these, however, will show that this is not the case. The municipal engineers of Greater New York have recently formed a society which has a most promising future, but its membership is limited to that corporation. There is a place, then, for a society which will do for all the other and smaller cities of the country what this last society does for New York. One division of municipal engineering, namely, water supply, is cared for by several societies, notably the American Water Works Association and the New England Water Works Association. But street-paving, cleaning and general maintenance, refuse collection and disposal, sewerage and

sanitation, except as the latter is treated from the physicians' point of view by the American Public Health Association, and many other avenues for municipal improvement, await the assistance of this society in their development.

The above considerations might give the impression that there is left for us only details of administration and construction; but such is far from being the case. We may treat as experts of the broad subject of the relative values of various utilities to a modern city which are essential, and which nonessential, to its most profitable growth. We shall be doing a better work in persuading a city to adopt proper sanitary garbage-disposal than in designing the details of its plant. To demonstrate and convince of the sanitary superiority and greater economy of a sewerage system over cesspools is as important as to build the system.

To a certain extent it is a weakness, but to a much greater extent should it be a strength, that our membership is not composed of one class only of officials, but that mayors, aldermen, engineers, and street and other superintendents all meet here to exchange ideas and learn each other's point of view, and our discussions should be, and to a large extent are, demonstrations of the value of this.—A. P. Folwell, *Municipal Engineering*, October, 1905. H. W.

**The Municipalization of Street Railways in Rome.**—The tramway company ought to be paying 400,000 lire to the municipality instead of the 290,000 lire which it is now paying. [A lira is 100 centesimi, equivalent to *ca.* \$.20.] The tramways are, however, more than a source of income; they are a public necessity.

The Società Romana dei Tramways-Omnibus points out that its stocks are quoted very low, and that the company is losing money. Such statements show the intention of the company not to share its gains with the municipality, and justify the proposition often made to municipalize this service. Judging by the statements of the officers of the company, it would seem that the stockholders ought to welcome municipalization; instead of which, they are its bitterest opponents. This fact itself naturally tends to increase the number of those who favor municipal ownership.

It may be well, considering the question on its own merits, apart from the statements made by the company, to compare conditions in Rome with those in Milan, where the street railways are semi-municipalized. In Milan the municipality owns and maintains the roadbed, having absolute jurisdiction of the lines, with power to extend them or discontinue the use of them at will. The Società Edison, the operating company, provides the service, namely: the erection and maintenance of the wires, the generation and distribution of power, the acquisition and maintenance of rolling-stock, and the employing of the operating force.

The gross earnings are divided between the municipality, as owner of the lines, and the operating company. The municipality received (1) 4,500 lire per kilometer of single track—to meet the cost of construction, including interest and amortization, and maintenance of the track—and (2) a fixed sum of 125,000 lire for the maintenance of the streets in which street-railway lines are operated. The Edison Company receives a payment to cover the cost of operation calculated on a basis of 26.38 centesimi per car-kilometer, divided as follows: traction expenses (power, etc.), 15.13 cent.; maintenance, 1.17 cent.; maintenance of rolling-stock, 2.65 cent.; general expenses, 3.12 cent.; amortization (i. e., sinking fund, or other means of retiring the debt), 4.31 cent. The surplus is divided, 60 per cent. going to the municipality and 40 per cent. to the operating company. In 1903 Milan received, according to this arrangement, 1,390,000 lire, a sum equal to 20 per cent. of the gross receipts.

The tramway company of Rome, on the other hand, pays to the municipality only 9.6 per cent. of its gross earnings, although its receipts average 68 centesimi per car-kilometer, as against 44.03 cent. in Milan. It is evident that the street-railway service of Rome could be more productive, and that—whatever the stockholders of the company may say—the share of the municipality in the net profits could be greater.

We do not believe, however, that it is absolutely necessary to municipalize the service in order to attain this result. If we follow the example of Milan and

inaugurate a similar relationship between the municipality and the street-railway company, then the municipality of Rome should also receive 20 per cent. of the gross receipts.

It is frequently repeated that the fares are higher in Rome than in any other Italian city; that the number of cars is insufficient for the needs of the people, who are often kept waiting at the stopping-places, and not infrequently are left standing there; and that the cars themselves are not properly cared for, and are not suited to the needs of the capital city.

Today the street-railway service, especially in large cities, is a public service, in the real sense of the term; and since we should insist on excluding from this category those functions which frequently are mistakenly included, so we should likewise insist on the most careful oversight by the municipality in those cases in which, as in the present one, the character of a public service is plainly recognizable. The council ought to provide for the functioning of the tramway service in such way as to make it serve the needs of the citizens. For this result no control would be too strict.

However, as we have already said, it is not at all necessary, in order to accomplish this purpose, to municipalize the service. Municipal ownership would not be certainly harmful, but it could permit the continuance of the inconveniences which we now suffer, unless the administration holds by the firm intention of attaining, at all costs, the public welfare.

Without municipalizing the service, a new form of control could be introduced; such, for example, as the issue of tickets to the street-railway company by the municipality, as is done in Milan. We ought, also, to develop the suburbs, extending the lines to the city limits (*le barriere daziarie*), and reducing the fares during the morning and evening hours for the accommodation of workingmen.

Conditions can be secured without upsetting present arrangements with the company. To maintain that municipal ownership is the only means of effecting an improvement is to interfere with a condition of affairs that can be bettered with the greatest facility. For there are contracts with the street-railway company which are to conserve the interests of the citizens, and it is the duty of the municipal government to enforce them; or, if there are no such contracts, it is the duty of the municipality to insist upon the company's making them.

Semi-municipalization, under such conditions as are found in Milan, would yield to the municipality the sum of 611,600 lire; whereas complete municipal ownership would yield 20,470 lire more. Without claiming absolute exactness in these figures, it is, nevertheless, evident that a municipalized tramway service would yield to the municipality a very slightly greater profit than would a semi-municipalized service patterned after that of Milan.

It seems evident from this discussion that, financially speaking, the advantages of an eventual municipalization—granting that there are advantages—are not great enough to make immediate municipal ownership an indispensable necessity. Before such action it is possible to try other expedients which will, in the meantime, serve to show the exact earning power of the street railways—and which, nevertheless, will not prevent subsequent municipalization at any time that it may appear advisable. Such an experiment as semi-municipalization [*i. e.*, municipal ownership, but not municipal operation, as in Milan], or else municipal regulation, as advocated in this paper, would not, by any means, be lacking in instructive value.—Luigi Nina, "La municipalizzazione del servizio tramviario nella Capitale," *Giornale degli Economisti*, September, 1905. H. W.

**The Ethics of Corporal Punishment.**—For an exposure of the futility of "flogging" the reader is referred to Mr. Collinson's pamphlet *Facts About Flogging*. The theme of this article is the immorality of flogging as a means of punishing offenders.

What explains the intense dislike of this practice, which in some quarters is still lauded? It is degrading to those who administer it and to those who receive it. It is the substance of personal tyranny. The ethical objection is that such punishment is supreme negation of free thinking—the symbol of the slavery of

the mind. In spite of this and a recognition of its cruelty, why is the practice approved and advocated by so many healthy-minded people?

It is explained by the fact of the prevalence of flogging in the schools. If a well-educated man's sons are flogged at Eton, it is no disgrace to the lower order to be birched by a policeman or a schoolmaster. Corporal punishment in the English schools is responsible for this servile and tyrannical tone of mind which applauds flogging because they and their children are hardened to its practice in the schools. It is a discipline. In this matter the instinct of the English working classes regarding corporal punishment as a disgrace is truer and less morbid than those "hardened" to it in the schools, i. e., their so-called superiors. The punishment of the young seems to be the clue to an understanding of the ethics of corporal punishment as a whole. Yet it is unpleasant to record an increase in the past few years of the practice of flogging the young. For example, the National Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children promoted a bill in 1900 (fortunately defeated) for the wholesale whipping of juvenile offenders at the discretion of the magistrate.

Turning to adult offenders, we find the same cry for the infliction of bodily pain on hooligans, wife-beaters, dynamiters, train-wreckers, ill-users of children and animals. Some English judges have of late shown a tendency to prescribe the prison birch to "rogues and vagabonds" under the infamous vagrancy acts once obsolete. The argument favoring such procedure, that these scoundrels cannot be disgraced, because already degraded in crime, is false; any living being, no matter how low, is not beyond human sympathy and aid.

The arguments against the brutality of the lash are futile and amusing; one of the silliest being more concerned in protecting the criminal than the victim of the crime. The most plausible sophism in favor of corporal punishment is contrasting the evils of imprisonment with the pretended beneficence of the lash. One thing can be said in favor of flogging: it "saves time." Like all short-cuts, "more haste, less speed."

To conclude: Corporal punishment, the antithesis of moral suasion, is an outrage on the supremacy of the human mind and dignity of the human body. All physical violence cannot be dispensed with, but this the most barbarous must be uprooted.—Henry S. Salt, in *International Journal of Ethics*, October, 1905.

S. E. W. B.

**Development of Labor Organizations in the United States.**—The earliest labor classes brought their forms from England, and the first distinctions were social, as between gentlemen and goodmen, or rich and poor. In the middle of the eighteenth century the wage question was first raised, but rather as a political than an economic one. After the War of Independence these organizations broke loose from the mother country, and in 1806 the tailors formed a separate union, followed by the hatters and others.

The years 1825-61 bring to the front labor agitation. Questions of wage and length of day were prominent, but the significance of organization as a means of leading contending classes to a better understanding of each other was not recognized. The movements of this period were under high-minded leaders, such as Owen, Brisbane, Dana, and Greeley; but they formed rather a politico-ethical sect than a party. In 1848 a great flood of immigrants of socialistic and revolutionary tendencies, stimulated class consciousness. Certain popular movements in England also found sympathy here. Mystical orders, such as "Knights of Labor," took rise. The air was charged with the spirit of Henry George and Bellamy, and the Congress of 1850 at Chicago raised the labor reaction to a triumphant place.

The first organized labor group which in the third decade of last century demanded shorter hours and higher wage was the builders, especially ship-builders, who after vain attempts to lead their employers to an open discussion of the question whether a ten-hour day would be a benefit, instituted a strike. In Boston employers organized to withstand the laborers and agreed not to employ organized labor. The boycott was recognized as a legitimate means of struggle. Labor continued to organize more highly and compactly. By 1853

almost all skilled labor trades had obtained at least the eleven-hour day, and shipbuilders the eight-hour day, and some success had been reached in the organization of the unskilled and of women.

The special feature of the period 1861-86 was the rapid growth of the half-mystical, half-practical orders. Knights of Labor reached a membership of 700,000. They were followed by Daughters of the Knights of Labor, who made political demands, such as referendum, weekly wage, and shorter hours. In this period between thirty and forty national unions arose. The socialistic spirit broadened out, but did not fully comprehend itself. In the last twenty years economic development has been great, through the application of machinery. Labor has specialized. No labor party has been successfully organized, but laborers have perfected economic organizations, and have defined and clearly set forth their problem. The real conflict now is between the unions and the non-unionist, just as the capitalist has to fight the underseller and the price-cutter. There are at least two and one-half millions of laborers in 116 national and international (Canada and Mexico) unions, made up of 27,000 local unions; there are also 33 state organizations. The unit of representation in the annual congress is the local union. The Federation attempts to influence politics and legislation. There is, in spite of the spirit of individualism, large co-operation in the Federation. The leaders have the confidence of the membership and yet suspicion of personal or political ends is never entirely absent.

Relations of the unions to employers are varied. The trusts and the labor leaders are not unconditioned opponents of each other. Only menacing forms of monopoly and financial encroachment are openly opposed. The small trusts are much more opposed to labor organizations than the larger. The contention between the two classes is less one of principle than of expediency. Sometimes by joint agreement the laborers and capitalists have been able to combine against the consumer, and this they have not been slow to do.

Arbitration is fast gaining ground, and strikes are becoming rarer, due to the great expense involved in them as well to the better control of the local unions by the Federation. In twenty-two states there are arbitration officers or boards, provided for by the state.

The two questions of importance to the unions are wage and kind of labor. They are not a unit on the question of piece-work; some favor, some oppose. On the whole, there is a disinclination to the *akkord* pay, because the employer has a tendency to make the ability of the best worker the basis of wage. Among piece-workers there is opposition to the extra-high wage; many local unions punish those who labor over the time set by the union; others have rules limiting the quantity of product for a day's work.

The eight-hour day has been gained by coal-miners and most builders' groups. In most other groups the day is still ten hours, and in some cases more. Applicants for membership to the unions must have followed their trade a certain length of time, varying from two to five years. Apprentices are limited to a certain proportion of the membership of the union, ranging from 1:5 to 1:15. Others limit yearly recruits to the demand for labor.

The unions recognize that their largest problem is relation to the unorganized and assimilation of the immigrant. This first problem is especially acute in times of strike. Thus they try to get all laborers to join some union, so that they will not steal their jobs. The struggle for the closed shop is the peculiar task of the unions at the present time.

Naturally the unions are in favor of restriction of immigration. Leopold von Wiese, "Skizze der Entwicklung der Arbeiterorganisationen in den Vereinigten Staaten von America," *Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung, Verwaltung und Volkswirtschaft im Deutschen Reich*. D. E. T.

**Hygiene of Lodging-Houses.**—The hygiene of workmen's families is a social problem. That governments can, if they wish, enact hygiene laws is shown by England. In spite of inherent conditions favoring it, they have been able to reduce tuberculosis in the last thirty years. No laws of health will reach the

case when the lodgings are unsanitary. The poor must live, and that in places that are open to them. The hygiene of the working families is necessary; the future depends on it. For the normal development of family life, for the rearing of children without weaknesses, for the prevention of tuberculosis, the lodging-houses must be sanitary. Those who most need protection by health laws are not able, on account of scanty wage, to pay the rent necessary to secure the better houses.

A proper co-operation of those interested could overcome the difficulties, as follows: first, by recognizing their real duty toward the poor; second, by the investment, on the part of public-spirited citizens, in well-located and scientifically constructed lodging-houses, of capital which will pay clear interest at the rate of  $2\frac{1}{2}$ -3 per cent., instead of  $4\frac{1}{2}$ -5 per cent.; third, by the proper equipment of the tenement-houses. Some requirements are: (a) washable walls and ceilings, good painting, water-tight floors, and plenty of wash water; (b) large windows for light and air; (c) plenty of water on all floors; (d) a cellar for provisions, wash-houses, and drying-rooms.—L. Chaptal. "L'Hygiène du logement et les petits budgets ouvriers," *Réforme sociale*, November 1, 1905.

The "Office central des œuvres de bienfaisance," of France, has made an investigation of the home conditions of the indigent population of Paris. Out of 2,636 homes visited, 2,327, or 88.3 per cent., were classed as "bad;" 245, or 9.3 per cent., as "mediocre;" and only 64, or 2.4 per cent., as "good." After making a study of such conditions, the investigators came to the following conclusions: There are two sorts of causes: those inherent in the dwellings, and those found in the tenants. Among the former are small rooms with low ceilings, providing a volume of air less than 14 cubic meters per individual, humidity, darkness, insufficient supply of water, and improper disposition of refuse. Seventy-five per cent. of the lodgments violated these tenement requirements. Unsanitary conditions furnished by the tenants are four: overpopulation, poor provisions for sleeping apartments, care of rooms, and drying of linen in the living-rooms. At least 75 per cent. of the places visited violated the requirements along this line.

The commission propose three ways to aid in the remedy: (1) more rigorous application of sanitary legislation; (2) cheaper rents and more modern lodging-houses; and (3) popularization of elementary and fundamental laws of hygiene.—G. Durangle, "Une enquête sur l'insalubrité des logements d'indigents," *Réforme sociale*, October 16, 1905. D. E. T.

**America and the Americans.**—Here are some impressions from late books dealing with above subject. M. Jules Huret, in his book *In America*, finds much to criticise, but also much to admire. He confesses to a sort of terror, inspired by the prodigious activity of Americans. Other traits are their incredible power of absorption and organization, their astonishing confidence in themselves, and the abundance of life among all classes, rich and poor. He has also very interesting chapters on American education, the negro problem, the great West, especially its cities, the common schools, hospitals, settlements, and the large and well-organized charitable societies. He finds in New Orleans representatives of the old French families.

Frazer, an Englishman, in *America at Work*, finds one of our chief causes of success in our remarkable organization of work. He saw not a single idle workingman in the course of all his travels. The young mechanics were seeking entrance into Carnegie's shops, even though entrance conditions were hard, for they knew that he pays his intelligent and ingenious workmen well, and if they could only distinguish themselves, their future would be secure. He was surprised at the wonderful development of machinery and the use of electricity, the great demand for technical education, the intelligence and aptitude of American youth in mechanics, and the organization of transportation.

Abbé Klein, in *Au pays de la vie intense*, was also impressed with the

energy and the desire for progress among Americans, but he studied principally social and religious conditions. He says the state is frankly Christian in that it considers the ideas of the gospel to be both the expression and the guarantee of civilization itself. The Americans, if they are "utilitarian," recognize and proclaim the social merits of religion, and assert that civilization rests essentially on the general contributions of Christianity, which is held to be a source of national prosperity. In this belief and teaching the President is a leader. Abbé Klein is also pleased with the large tolerance existing between Christians of diverse confessions. Catholics and Protestants work side by side in philanthropic undertakings, emphasizing their unity and forgetting their differences.

In his little volume Price Collier notices the strenuousness of America, but views it from its more unfavorable side, remarking its harmful influences on the political, social, moral, and religious life, and its tendency to retard æsthetic development. The American does not cease his wild scramble for gold when he has become materially independent, but continues to absorb himself in professional and commercial engagements; he does not wish to be found with spare time on his hands, and does not take recreation, even when it is easily available. Responsibility on the part of the rich and powerful is not developed, and, in spite of democratic appearances, Collier has not found among any other people in the world the barrier between rich and poor, master and servant, the man who works with his hands and the one who does not, so rudely marked.

Andrew Carnegie's book, *Democracy Triumphant*, brings to light much that is of interest from the years 1830-50; but on the whole, he is too enthusiastic, too excessively patriotic. He insists on the education of the masses, and shows how the United States has in this regard greatly excelled the world. Social and religious progress has been as great; also in national homogeneity we excel, for we have already a common literature, common interests, and a common patriotism. In the same optimistic strain he follows out America's material progress.

M. Anadoli has returned from America with the conviction that it will play an ever-increasing rôle in the destinies of the world. He entitles his book *The Empire of Affairs*. The secret of superiority in American institutions is the fact that the two currents which traverse every political edifice here perfectly balance each other. These are the spirit of conservatism and liberalism, order and liberty, authority and the individual. He believes that the centralizing influences are so strong that no centrifugal forces will be sufficient to overcome them and cause division. Imperialism seems to be the most menacing danger.—George Blondel, "L'Amérique et les Américains d'après de nouveaux ouvrages," *Réforme sociale*, November 1, 1905. D. E. T.

**The Problem of Poverty.**—Two classes of persons give time and thought to the poor problem: those of the leisured class who give, but do not know the real conditions; then those who have thrown themselves into the midst of the fight. Corresponding to these two classes are two diverse ways of looking at the same thing: those who think all the problems can be reduced to a law and are content to solve the problem by a general reference to the law; and, secondly, those discovering by the actual contact with the problem that the law is not adequate.

In turn, these elements enter to explain and complicate the problem. The "reign of economic law," environment, heredity, education—all are stock words; yet the problem defies solution. What is the rock upon which so many good vessels have made a shipwreck? The answer is: human character. This is the unknown quantity in every problem. We take the following steps, but seem to make no advance: (1) the idea of invariableness and universality of law; (2) we abandon all idea of law; (3) freedom within limits. Heredity, environment, etc., are forces, without which man could not advance at all, and yet he holds his destiny in his own hands.

The failure of the economic law may teach us a lesson. The state cannot



by law give work to provide for the improvident. However, it is the duty of the state to give relief, and that well planned, to the epileptic, the blind, and mentally afflicted who swell the ranks of the suffering poor. Germany sets the example in this respect.

If those who constantly encourage the poor to look to the state to remedy social conditions would frankly recognize that the question is far more moral than either political or economic, they would save much disappointment. Let them preach reformation from within, rather than assistance from without.—C. Baumgarten, in *Economic Review*, October, 1905. S. E. W. B.

**Dangerous Trades.**—The International Conference on Dangerous Trades this year, at Berne, where a plan for protective legislation for all workers in dangerous trades was brought within the range of practical politics, suggests this paper. There are two kinds of industrial dangers: (1) risk of accident; (2) peril, because of unwholesome conditions, involving use of poisonous materials.

Take the first class. The annual tale of industrial accidents is appalling. The willingness of the manufacturer to accept official counsel is an encouragement. The number of accidents would be reduced by three remedies: (1) providing dangerous machinery with effective guards; (2) maintaining proper fencing about the machinery; (3) limiting the hours of labor. Age is an element in reckoning the number of accidents; young girls and children are allowed to manipulate dangerous machinery. Risk of accident is the chief peril in bottling of beer and aerated waters. This can be remedied by wearing of masks and guards; but employers are not always careful in noting breaches of these special rules.

Passing to the second class, trades less visibly perilous, we find occupations inducing or predisposing to disease, undermining health, and thus affecting the future of the race. Pre-eminent are the "dusty" trades; e. g., miners, lead-workers, chimney-sweeps, etc. The remedy for reducing disease and death is special rules, intelligently and conscientiously put into practice. Witness the nearly complete victory over necrosis in match-making factories; the lessening number of cases of plumbism among workers in lead. Rules for protection is not enough; we must seek ways to render the trades harmless. Let science eliminate the injurious materials used in manufacture. France is showing England the way in this respect. Of course, the special rules are limited by conditions. The faithful observance of every rule in a set is necessary if the set achieve a purpose.

Besides these dangerous trades, there are also trades—e. g., the hatters trade, vulcanizing of india rubber; lifting excessive weights, and extreme specialization—which expose to infection by anthrax spores. Steaming is the remedy.

In conclusion, two reflections: First, where regulation of dangerous trades is attempted, the regulations should be real. The second points to an extension of legislation also. Ought not sufferers of diseases from occupation to be eligible for compensation? But more important than compensation is preservation. Let science make wholesome the hitherto injurious occupations.—Constance Smith, in *Economic Review*, October, 1905. S. E. W. B.

**The Unemployed.**—In dealing with the problem of the unemployed advances should be made along the following lines: (1) Restore the land to its proper use by a constructive policy of home colonization; (2) attempt to solve the problem of the physical deterioration of town children, by better safeguarding the life of the child both before and after birth, by medical examination on entering school, and supervision throughout school life, and by feeding the necessitous school children; (3) raise the minimum age of employment, abolish child vagrancy, continue compulsory education by evening classes till the age of sixteen or seventeen; (4) a more equitable system of taxation and rating; (5) reduction of the hours of labor; (6) the discouragement of the breeding of the unfit; (7) the diminution of the temptations to drunkenness and betting.—G. P. Gouch, in *Contemporary Review*, March, 1906. S. E. W. B.